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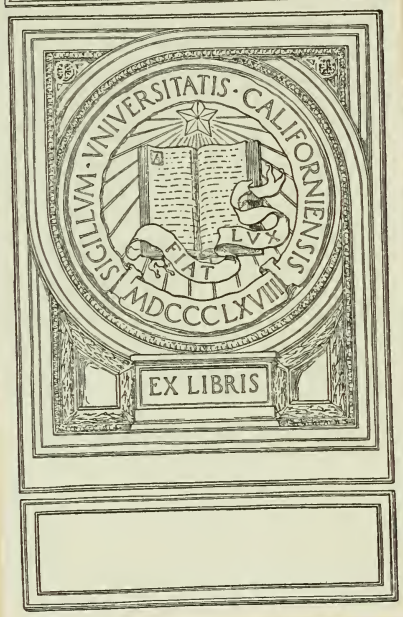
MACMILLAN'S HISTORICAL ATLAS OF MODERN EUROPE

EDITED BY

F. J. C. HEARNSHAW

GIFT

IN MEMORIAM
Wm. A. Morris 1875-1946



MACMILLAN'S HISTORICAL ATLAS OF MODERN EUROPE

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MACMILLAN'S
HISTORICAL ATLAS
OF MODERN EUROPE

A SELECT SERIES OF MAPS ILLUSTRATIVE OF THE RECENT HISTORY OF THE CHIEF EUROPEAN STATES AND THEIR DEPENDENCIES

EDITED BY

F. J. C. HEARNSHAW
M.A., LL.D.
PROFESSOR OF HISTORY IN KING'S COLLEGE, UNIVERSITY OF LONDON;
AUTHOR OF "MAIN CURRENTS IN EUROPEAN HISTORY, 1815–1915,"
"EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY," ETC., ETC.

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1920

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PREFACE

The events of recent years have shaken the British peoples out of their insularity, and have caused them to turn as never before to the study of international affairs. The rumours of war which alarmed them in 1905, 1908, and 1911, still more the actual conflicts which broke the tranquillity of Europe in 1912, 1913, and 1914, impressed them with a consciousness that there were operating in the world gigantic and elemental forces of which they were ignorant, and filled them with a new desire to know the things that appertained to their peace. Such history as the better educated among them had learned at school had as a rule abruptly ended with the battle of Waterloo and the departure of Napoleon to St. Helena in 1815, and it was clearly evident that most of the acute problems which divided the nations into hostile groups had arisen since that date, and that not a few of them had had their source in that very Vienna Settlement which had followed the fall of the Bonapartist empire. Hence came a demand from thoughtful students of politics for text-books of nineteenth-century history from which they should be able to learn the antecedents of those vexing questions and those conflicting claims which were causing so frightful an upheaval among men. The demand called forth an answering supply, and there is now no lack of trustworthy guides to the intricacies of modern history.

History is, however, intimately bound up with geography. At almost every turn of the narrative the reader, if he desires fully to comprehend what he is perusing, has occasion to refer to an atlas. Although some of the recent text-books are provided with useful sketch-plans, it is felt that there is urgent need of a more complete series of historical maps which may serve as a companion to any or all of the narrative volumes. That series is herewith diffidently presented to the public. Since each map is accompanied by an explanatory introduction, only a few words of general preface seem here to be necessary. First, it will be noted that attention is concentrated on political and ethnographical features. Experience has shown that it is impossible to add physical features to a political or ethnographical map without causing inextricable confusion. Students are, therefore, recommended to have by their side for reference and comparison an atlas in which physical features alone are given. Secondly, it will be seen that most of the maps restrict themselves to showing the transmutations of the century 1815–1914. A few, however, have to go back, for clearness' sake, to an earlier date, *e.g.* Poland to 1772, France to 1598, and Prussia to 1415. One map, viz. the last, makes an attempt to depict the changes in Europe effected by the peace treaties of 1919–20. In some of its details it is necessarily tentative. For, although Western Europe seems to have reached some sort of stability, in the East of the Continent all things continue in a state of flux. No pretence can yet be made to indicate the shape of the cosmos which some day must emerge from the Russian chaos.

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For the historical portion of the atlas the chief authority has been Hertslet's indispensable *Map of Europe by Treaty*; for the more recent political portion the texts of the peace treaties and the critical summaries provided by the *Geographical Journal* have proved to be exceedingly useful. The drawing of the maps has been in the skilled hands of Mr. J. F. Staton, F.R.G.S., of the firm of Mr. Emery Walker, and if (as is hoped) the atlas is free from grave error the result is to no small degree due to Mr. Staton's wide knowledge and to the patient care with which he has investigated every available source of information.

If in spite of diligent revision some mistakes have escaped correction, I shall be greatly obliged if those who detect them will make them known to me, so that they may if possible be corrected in future editions.

F. J. C. HEARNSHAW.

King's College,
University of London,
5*th July* 1920.

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BETWEEN the time of going to press and the date of publication the following points have been settled :—

Plebiscite Areas.

East Prussia. — Allenstein and Marienwerder returned heavy German majorities.

Poland and Czecho-Slovakia. — In the Teschen area rioting prevented a plebiscite. The Ambassadors' Council at Paris fixed the frontier after an agreement had been reached between the Polish and Czecho-Slovak Governments (August 1920).

Austria. — The Klagenfurt area voted in favour of Austria.

An agreement has been reached between **Italy** and **Yugo-Slavia** concerning their frontier question. (Treaty of Rapallo, Nov. 12, 1920.) The whole of the former Austrian counties of Görz and Gradisca, the Lordship of Trieste, nearly the whole of the Marquisate of Istria, and a considerable part of Carniola pass to Italy. **Fiume** is to be an Independent State.

Courland and **Livonia** are now known as the Republic of Latvia (Map XI.).

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EUROPE
1815 - 1914
English Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
Boundary of the German Confederation 1815-1866
The German Empire since 1871
France in 1815
France after the Peace of Frankfort 1871. (Savoy & Nice annexed from Sardinia 1860)
Austrian territory in 1815
Kingdom of Italy since 1870, formed by the union of the various States with the Kingdom of Sardinia. The figures (1860) show the date of union.
Boundary of European Turkey in 1815
Note: The boundaries of the Balkan States are those of the Treaty of Bucharest 1913; for changes between 1815 and 1913 see separate maps of the Balkan Peninsula.
Country ceded by Russia to Roumania by the Treaty of Paris 1856, but restored by the Treaty of Berlin 1878.
A B C D E F G
1 2 3
B Meridian 0° of Greenwich C D Longitude East 20° of Greenwich E F
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BRITISH ISLANDS
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
BLACK SEA
Union of Norway and Sweden (1814) repealed 1905
Christiania
Stockholm
Gulf of Finland
St. Petersburg (Petrograd)
Reval
Riga
Libau
Duina
Helgoland ceded by Britain 1890 to Germany
Boundary of Denmark in 1815
Copenhagen
Bornholm
Königsberg
Danzig
Vilna
Edinburgh
Dublin
Amsterdam
Hamburg
Bremen
Hanover
Berlin
Stettin
Posen
KINGDOM OF POLAND (1815-1831)
Warsaw
London
Calais
Brussels
Cologne
Dresden
Breslau
Channel Is. (British)
Brest
Rouen
Sedan
Paris
Metz
Nantes
Orleans
Toul
Belfort
Prague
BOHEMIA
Lemberg
GALICIA
Munich
Vienna
AUSTRIA
Budapest
HUNGARY
TYROL
Rochefort
Bordeaux
Lyons
SWITZERLAND
Bern
Rhine
Danube
Inn
Drave
Save
Theiss
Bug
Dniester
BESSARABIA (to R.)
BUKOVINA
TRANSYLVANIA
Odessa
Don
Rostov
Sea of Azov
CRIMEA
R. Alma
Sebastopol
Oporto
Bayonne
Toulouse
Nice
Marseilles
Toulon
Corsica
Genoa
Parma (1860)
Modena (1860)
Lucca (1860)
TUSCANY (1860)
ROMAGNA AND THE MARCHES (1860)
UMBRIA AND SAN MARINO
Venice
DALMATIA-SLAVONIA
BOSNIA (to Austria 1908)
Belgrade
SERBIA
Bucharest
WALACHIA
Sofia
Danube
Varna
BULGARIA
EASTERN RUMELIA
Batum
RUSSIA (1878)
Kars
Madrid
Lisbon
Tagus
Guadiana
Guadalquivir
Seville
Barcelona
Valencia
Balearic Is.
Sardinia
Corsica
PAPAL STATES (1870)
Rome
Naples
KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES (1860)
Adriatic
Ionian
Adrianople
Salonica
Constantinople
Bosphorus
Dardanelles
Aegean
GREECE
Athens
ASIATIC TURKEY
EMPIRE
Tangier (International Zone)
Gibraltar (Br.)
Ceuta
Spanish Zone 1912
MOROCCO (French Protectorate 1912)
Algiers
Tunis
ALGERIA (French 1830)
TUNIS (Fr. 1881)
Malta (British)
Reggio
Sicily
Ionian Islands (under British protection 1815-63; ceded to Greece)
Crete
(Autonomous State 1898-1912; to Greece 1913)
Cyprus
(British occupation 1878-1914; annexed 1914)
Damascus
Emery Walker Ltd sc.

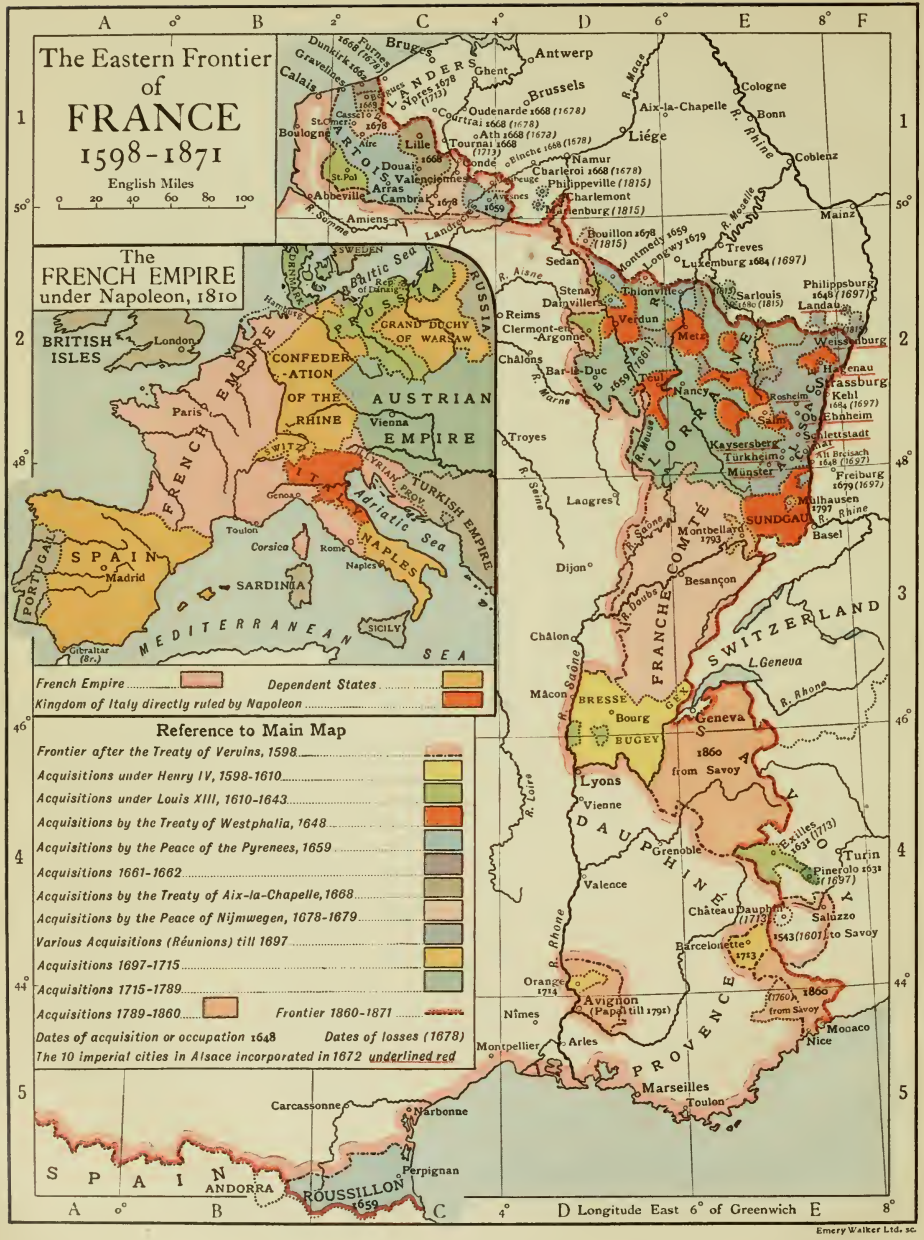
MAP I

EUROPE : 1815–1914

The map of Europe in 1815 was in its most important features determined by the Treaties of Vienna (June) and Paris (November), both concluded that year after long and anxious deliberations on the part of all the leading statesmen of the Continent. The main purpose of these decisive diplomatic instruments was to undo the work of the French Revolution, dissolve the military empire of Napoleon, and restore Europe, so far as was possible, to the condition in which it had found itself in 1789. The Treaty of Paris reduced France to her pre-revolutionary boundaries. The Vienna settlement attempted a general reconstruction of the Continent. Only the broad features of the plan need be indicated here ; the detailed treatment of the separate items will more appropriately be given in connection with the subsequent maps of the particular states concerned. First, in order to provide a strong barrier supposed to be necessary to prevent the French from breaking out again : (1) Belgium was joined to Holland under the rule of the Prince of Orange ; (2) the Rhine Provinces of Germany were given to Prussia, which was still further strengthened by the acquisition of parts of Saxony and Poland ; (3) the Swiss Confederation was reorganised and was reinforced by the addition of three new cantons, viz. Valais, Geneva, and Neufchâtel ; (4) Nice and Genoa were placed as Transalpine outposts in the hands of the House of Savoy. Secondly, a new constitution was constructed for Germany. No country had suffered so much at the hands of Napoleon. The Holy Roman Empire, which for a thousand years had given an appearance of unity to the distracted German nation, had been dissipated ; the majority of the 360 petty eighteenth-century German states had been usefully extinguished. Out of their remnants thirty-nine states were reconstituted, and were joined together in a permanent alliance called a Confederation or *Bund*. Thirdly, Poland was repartitioned—although not quite on eighteenth-century lines—between Austria, Prussia, and the Tsar, who was allowed to erect his portion into a constitutional kingdom independent of Russia. Fourthly, Russia was permitted to keep Finland, which she had annexed from Sweden in 1809 ; Sweden in compensation received Norway, which was taken away from Denmark, to whom it had been unwillingly subject since the end of the fourteenth century ; Denmark, by the loss of this tributary kingdom, was punished for her persistent adhesion to the Napoleonic side in the struggles of the preceding fifteen years. Fifthly, Italy, which had attained a virtual unity under French control during the period 1810–15, was split up once more into eight sections, over which Austrian influence was dominant. Finally, the Ionian Islands were placed under British protection. Spain and Portugal were restored to their former rulers, but no territorial adjustments were necessary. South-eastern Europe lay outside the scope of the Treaties of 1815.

The settlement effected at Vienna and Paris was intended to be permanent. No provision was made for any revision, reconsideration, or modification of its terms. A Quadruple Alliance was instituted for the express purpose of keeping the " Treaty-system " inviolate. But the " Treaty-system " had been framed on the lines of legitimacy and precedent, and in complete, if not defiant, disregard of the priniciples of democratic self-determination and national independence, which had become potent during the revolutionary upheaval of the generation of conflict (1789–1815). Hence the history of the century 1815–1914 was to no small extent the record of the process by which the " Treaty-system " was destroyed, and the arrangements made at Vienna superseded.

The following, in rough chronological order, were the chief territorial changes in Europe during the hundred years in question : (1) Greece revolted from Turkey, 1821, and secured recognition as an independent kingdom in 1831 ; (2) Belgium broke away from Holland in


The Eastern Frontier of FRANCE 1598-1871
English Miles
0 20 40 60 80 100
The FRENCH EMPIRE under Napoleon, 1810
BRITISH ISLES
London
Paris
CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE
GRAND DUCHY OF WARSAW
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
Vienna
PRUSSIA
RUSSIA
SWEDEN
TURKISH EMPIRE
SPAIN
Madrid
PORTUGAL
SARDINIA
Corsica
Rome
Naples
SICILY
Toulon
Genoa
Gibraltar (Br.)
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Adriatic Sea
Baltic Sea
French Empire
Dependent States
Kingdom of Italy directly ruled by Napoleon
Reference to Main Map
Frontier after the Treaty of Vervins, 1598
Acquisitions under Henry IV, 1598-1610
Acquisitions under Louis XIII, 1610-1643
Acquisitions by the Treaty of Westphalia, 1648
Acquisitions by the Peace of the Pyrenees, 1659
Acquisitions 1661-1662
Acquisitions by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1668
Acquisitions by the Peace of Nijmwegen, 1678-1679
Various Acquisitions (Réunions) till 1697
Acquisitions 1697-1715
Acquisitions 1715-1789
Acquisitions 1789-1860
Frontier 1860-1871
Dates of acquisition or occupation 1648
Dates of losses (1678)
The 10 imperial cities in Alsace incorporated in 1672 underlined red
NETHERLANDS
Brussels
Antwerp
Ghent
Bruges
Dunkirk 1662 (1713)
Furnes 1668 (1678)
Gravelines 1665
Calais
Boulogne
St. Omer 1678
Aire
Lille 1668
Douai
Tournai 1668 (1713)
Oudenarde 1668 (1678)
Courtrai 1668 (1678)
Ath 1668 (1678)
Condé
Binche 1668 (1678)
Namur
Charleroi 1668 (1678)
Philippeville (1815)
Charlemont
Marienburg (1815)
St. Pol
Arras
Cambrai 1678
Abbeville
Amiens
Valenciennes
Maubeuge
Landrecies
Avesnes
1659
Bouillon 1678 (1815)
Sedan
Stenay
Dainville
Thionville
Montmedy 1659
Longwy 1679
Luxemburg 1684 (1697)
Treves
Cologne
Aix-la-Chapelle
Bonn
Liége
Coblenz
Mainz
R. Rhine
R. Moselle
R. Meuse
R. Somme
R. Aisne
R. Marne
R. Seine
R. Saône
R. Doubs
R. Loire
R. Rhône
Reims
Clermont-en-Argonne
Verdun
Metz
Sarlouis 1680 (1815)
Philippsburg 1648 (1697)
Landau
Weissenburg
Châlons
Bar-le-Duc
Toul
1659
Nancy
Rosheim
Kehl 1684 (1697)
Strassburg
Hagenau
Ob-Ehnheim
Schlettstadt
Kaysersberg
Türkheim
Munster
Colmar
St. Brisach 1648 (1697)
Freiburg 1679 (1697)
Troyes
Laagres
Mülhausen 1797
SUNDGAU
Montbellard 1793
Basel
Rhine
Dijon
Besançon
Châlon
Mâcon
BRESSE
Bourg
BUGEY
1860 from Savoy
Geneva
L. Geneva
SWITZERLAND
FRANCHE COMTÉ
LORRAINE
ALSACE
Lyons
Vienne
DAUPHINY
Grenoble
Valence
Barcelonette 1713
Exilles 1633 (1713)
Pinerolo 1631 (1697)
Turin
Château Dauphin (1713)
Saluzzo
1543 (1601) to Savoy
Orange 1714
Avignon (Papal till 1791)
1860 from Savoy
Nîmes
Montpellier
Arles
PROVENCE
Mônaco
Nice
Marseilles
Toulon
Carcassonne
Narbonne
Perpignan
ROUSSILLON 1659
ANDORRA
SPAIN
A 0° B 2° C 4° D 6° E 8° F
1 2 3 4 5
50° 48° 46° 44°
D Longitude East 6° of Greenwich E
Emery Walker Ltd. sc.

THE EASTERN FRONTIER OF FRANCE: 1598–1871

The Empire of Charles the Great at the beginning of the ninth century of the Christian era had included not only the whole of the region now called France and the greater part of that now called Germany, but also all those intervening territories which are at the present day claimed by Holland, Belgium, Luxemburg, and Switzerland. This immense Carolingian dominion was in A.D. 843 divided up among the three grandsons of Charles, one of whom took "France," another of whom took "Germany," while the third received the Middle Kingdom, which included the mixed and debatable borderlands that lay between the comparatively homogeneous Romano-Celtic realm on the west and the comparatively homogeneous Teutonic realm on the east. That Middle Kingdom had a short and stormy career of less than half a century, and the frontier districts which it comprised have been a source of conflict between the French and their neighbours during most of the thousand years that have since elapsed.

It lies beyond our scope to trace the fluctuations of the mediaeval boundaries. Students who wish to pursue this investigation will find useful guidance in the excellent maps of Putzger's *Historischer Schul-Atlas*. Our study of modern changes begins with the Treaty of Vervins, 1598, which, together with the Edict of Nantes of the same date, terminated the French Wars of Religion and established the Bourbons firmly on the French throne. This treaty, concluded between Henry IV. of France and the dying Philip II. of Spain, made no important territorial alterations. It arranged for a general restoration of conquests, a restitution of the *status quo ante*, a stabilisation of pre-existing frontiers.

From that time onward for the next two hundred years the power of the Bourbons tended to increase, while the power of the Habsburgs both in Germany and (till 1700) in Spain tended to decrease. Hence French ambitions were directed towards the acquisition of Habsburg territory, and particularly towards the expansion of France up to the limit of her so-called "natural boundaries" of the Rhine, the Alps, and the Pyrenees—boundaries which it was never forgotten had been the frontiers of Roman Gaul. These ambitions were never fully realised until for a few brief years under Napoleon (1810–13) they were not only realised but far exceeded. Nevertheless, incessant encroachments by all sorts of means—marriage, conquest, legal chicanery, diplomacy, simple grab—led to the transfer of a lot of fragments from the other to the French side of the dividing line. The story is a complex one. The outstanding features are the following: (1) In 1601, as the result of a successful invasion of Savoy, Henry IV. acquired Bresse and Bugey, in return for which he surrendered certain claims that he had to Saluzzo. (2) In 1631 Richelieu, minister of Louis XIII., who had intervened with decisive effect in Italian politics, was able to dictate to Savoy the Peace of Cherasco, which left the fortress of Pinerolo and its approaches (including Exilles) in French hands. (3) The Thirty Years' War in Germany, into which Richelieu had thrust France in 1635, was not over either during the life of the Cardinal himself or the reign of his master. It was left to Mazarin, as minister of Louis XIV., to reap the rewards of French intermeddling when the Peace of Westphalia was concluded in 1648. By this settlement France secured Austrian Alsace, including Breisach, together with the formal recognition of her possession of Metz, Toul, and Verdun (which she had administered and garrisoned since 1552), and of Pinerolo (held since 1631). She also acquired the right to garrison Philippsburg. (4) In 1659 a long war with Spain was brought to a close by the Treaty of the Pyrenees. This gave to France Roussillon and Cerdagne on the Spanish frontier, together with Artois from the Spanish

Netherlands, and several border fortresses of which Thionville was the most important. By this treaty also it was arranged that Louis XIV. should marry the eldest daughter of the Spanish king, Philip IV.—a marriage which provided the unscrupulous French monarch with pretexts for predatory raids on Spanish territories during the whole remainder of his long reign. (5) In 1661–62 Louis secured by purchase from Charles II. of England the town and vicinage of Dunkirk, which Cromwell had conquered from Spain four years earlier. (6) In 1667 an invasion of the Spanish Netherlands by powerful French armies seemed likely to result in their complete conquest. This was prevented by the formation of a protective Triple Alliance, consisting of Holland, Sweden, and England. Louis was compelled to evacuate the Low Countries (as well as Franche Comté, which he had also overrun); but by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1668, he was allowed to keep the important border fortresses of Charleroi, Binche, Ath, Douai, Tournai, Oudenarde, Lille, Armentières, Courtrai, Bergues, and Furnes with their districts. (7) In 1678 an unprovoked and unsuccessful attack upon the Dutch was concluded by the Peace of Nijmwegen. Spain had become involved in the conflict and most of the territorial changes related to her dominions. On the one hand she recovered Charleroi, Binche, Ath, Oudenarde, Courtrai, and a few other places, but in lieu of them had to surrender Valenciennes, Condé, Maubeuge, Cambrai, Ypres, etc. On the other hand, she was forced to cede to France the large and vitally important province of Franche Comté—the old Free County of Burgundy, part of the vast heritage which the Duchess Mary had conveyed to the Habsburgs by her marriage to Maximilian at the close of the fifteenth century. (8) The period 1678–84 was marked by the establishment of French "Chambres de Réunion," pseudo-legal bodies, whose decisions gave Louis an excuse for the occupation of Strassburg (1681), Luxemburg (1684), and many other places in Alsace, Lorraine, and the Low Countries. (9) The alarm caused by the aggressive reunion policy of Louis XIV. led to the formation of the League of Augsburg and to the consequent war of 1688–97. By the Treaty of Ryswick, which ended an inconclusive struggle, France, in return for various concessions, agreed (*a*) to evacuate all towns taken since 1678 except Strassburg and Landau; (*b*) to withdraw from the right bank of the Rhine, yielding Philippsburg, Freiburg, and Breisach; (*c*) to restore all Lorraine except Saarlouis; (*d*) to restore Pinerolo to Savoy. (10) In 1700, on the death of the last of the Spanish Habsburgs, Charles II., Louis XIV. made an attempt to secure the whole of the Spanish monarchy for his grandson, Philip of Anjou. This design was only partially successful, and by the Treaties of Utrecht (1713) and Rastadt (1714) the empire of Charles II. was dismembered. The Spanish Netherlands were transferred to Austria and a slight rectification of frontier was effected. Among the towns which the French were called upon to surrender were Menin, Tournai, Furnes, and Ypres. On the French-Savoy boundary, too, some readjustments were made: the French received Barcelonette and Orange on the Rhone, but they had to surrender Exilles, Fénestrelle, and Château Dauphin. (11) During the seventy-five years which intervened between the Peace of Utrecht and the Revolution the principal acquisitions of the French were the Duchies of Lorraine and Bar (1766), which came to them under the terms of the Treaty of Vienna of 1738, and the island of Corsica, which they took over from Genoa in 1768. (12) The Revolutionary and Napoleonic changes, 1789–1815, were too numerous and too ephemeral for mention here. (13) The Resettlement of 1815 is described in connection with the preceding map of Europe. (14) Between 1815 and 1914 the most important changes of frontier were the acquisitions of Savoy and Nice by France in 1860 (see Map of Italy, No. 7, below), and the loss of Alsace and Lorraine in 1871 (see Map of Germany, No. 5, below).

POLAND, 1772-1914

MAP III

POLAND : 1772–1914

The original home of the Slavonic race, to which the Poles belong, is believed to have been the marshy flats of "Black Russia," whose surplus waters the Niemen and the Pripet in vain endeavour to convey, the one to the Baltic, the other to the Black Sea. Amid the morasses of this inhospitable region grew up on scattered islets numerous communities of stunted folk, laborious, prolific, patient, unwarlike, inured to hardship and familiar with death. They were devoid of political organisation, and even of tribal consciousness; for the unplumbed, rank, estranging swamps kept them apart from one another, and isolated them from the outer world. As population overflowed the narrow limits of this central marshland, it tended to move westward and southward, and this tendency was greatly accelerated by the violent impact from time to time of the nomadic hordes of Huns, Avars, or Tartars, who poured from the Asiatic steppes on the east, and by attacks of Letts and Lithuanians from the north. Before the end of the sixth century of the Christian era the Slavs had reached as far as the Elbe in the one direction, and beyond the Danube in the other.

This wide-spread but incoherent and unco-ordinated Slavonic race was soon split into three main sections. The Magyars, by forcing their way up the Danube and occupying Hungary in the ninth and tenth centuries, cut off the Southern Slavs from the Northern; while the Lithuanians from the Baltic coast pressed southward until in the fourteenth century they actually reached the Black Sea. This Lithuanian thrust divided the Poles and other Western Slavs from the Russians or Eastern Slavs. The results of this latter division were decisive and disastrous. While the Russians received their culture and religion from Byzantium, the Poles were evangelised and civilised by Rome; and while the Russians were moulded into a nation by Viking rulers from Sweden, the Poles passed under the tutelage of the Germans. The differences thus engendered were accentuated by the Tartar incursions of the thirteenth century. For one dreadful year only (1241) Poland was overrun, but Russia actually passed under Tartar domination for two and a half centuries and ceased to count as a factor in Christendom. During this Russian eclipse Poland rose to eminence as the prime Slavonic power. Its capital was Cracow, and the heart of its dominions the modern province of Galicia. In the fourteenth century it produced a series of able native monarchs; but it suffered from two grave sources of weakness, viz. its lack of defensible frontiers and its want of outlets to the ocean. Its approaches to the Black Sea were prevented by hostile Magyars and Tartars; its natural harbours on the Baltic had passed into the German control of Teutonic knights or Hanseatic merchants. In order that it might remove the German obstruction to its easy access to the Baltic, Poland in the fourteenth century (1325) entered into an alliance with the then powerful but still savage and half-pagan kingdom of Lithuania (capital Vilna). This alliance became a personal union in 1386, when the male line of the Polish dynasty died out, and the heiress of the house married Jagello, king of Lithuania. The combination of forces thus effected achieved some remarkable successes over the Germans in the fifteenth century. The Teutonic knights were decisively crushed at Tannenberg in 1410; Samogitia was secured in 1411; West Prussia with Thorn and Danzig in 1466. In 1526 the Duchy of Masovia (the region including Warsaw) lapsed to the Polish crown; in 1561 Courland and Livonia became subject; in 1569 the summit of success was reached when the personal union between Poland and Lithuania was converted into a real union by the Treaty of Lublin (for boundary see map).

The cause which thus welded Poles and Lithuanians into a single State was dread of the new and rising power of the Princes of Muscovy. These princes had succeeded in throwing off the Tartar yoke, and had begun the process of reuniting the Russian peoples under a new

despotic monarchy. At the same time, moreover, East Prussia, long loosely held by the decadent Teutonic knights, passed as a secularised duchy into the hands of the ambitious Hohenzollerns. Thus Poland-Lithuania found herself confronted by the two powers which were destined ultimately to compass her undoing. Her own mixed peoples, however, greatly facilitated the disintegrating work of Russia and Prussia by their factiousness, turbulence, and treachery.

In 1572 the Jagellon dynasty died out, and the Polish crown became the prey of contending parties of nobles. Incessant civil commotion left the State a helpless victim to encroaching neighbours. In 1621 Sweden occupied North Livonia; in 1660 East Prussia repudiated the Polish suzerainty; in 1667 Russia compelled the Poles to surrender the immense strip of White Russian and Little Russian territory (annexed by Lithuania in the days of the Tartar troubles) which had Smolensk and Kiev as its chief cities. In 1672 the Turks acquired Southern Podolia.

These frontier nibblings clearly indicated the peril of partition to which Poland finally succumbed. It was the accession of Peter the Great of Russia in 1689, however, which made that peril imminent; for Peter turned the face of Russia definitely toward the West, and inaugurated a policy of European expansion which involved the elimination of Poland from the map. Peter was not himself able to carry through his policy; the task of doing so was left to his unscrupulous successor, Catherine II. (1762–1796). She was not, it is true, in a position to achieve Peter's complete design of annexing Poland-Lithuania as a whole, for Prussia and Austria were so powerful and so jealous that they had to be placated with portions of the prey. The actual proposal for partition, indeed, came in 1769 from Frederick the Great of Prussia, who was eager to secure West Prussia and Ermeland, in order to knit up his Pomeranian and East Prussian territories. Catherine II. agreed to his doing so, provided that she should be allowed to annex South Livonia together with all the old Russian dominions east of the Dvina and Dnieper. Maria Theresa of Austria tearfully protested against the proposed spoliation, but when she found that she could not stop it, she insisted on having Galicia and Lodomeria as a solace to her wounded sensibilities. In 1793, when Austria was involved in war with Revolutionary France, Russia and Prussia effected a second partition; the former taking the bulk of Podlesia, Volhynia, Northern Podolia, and the Ukraine; the latter linking up Silesia with East Prussia by annexing a large part of Great Poland with its appurtenances. This flagrant spoliation excited a vain revolt of the Poles under Kosciusko. Its suppression by Russian and Prussian troops prepared the way for the extinction of Poland by the third partition (1795). Russia took Courland, Samogitia, Lithuania, with the remainder of Podlesia and Volhynia; Austria received Little Poland with Cracow; Prussia had all the rest including Warsaw. Thus Poland as a State came to an end.

Its subsequent history must be briefly indicated. In 1807, after Napoleon's overthrow of Prussia at Jena, and in accordance with the Treaty of Tilsit made with Russia, a Grand Duchy of Warsaw was constituted, dependent on France. It consisted, roughly, of the Prussian and Austrian acquisitions, 1793–95. To these were added Cracow and West Galicia in 1809. During the wars of liberation (1813) this Grand Duchy was overrun and occupied by Russian troops, and at the Vienna Settlement of 1815 (after a furious diplomatic conflict) the bulk of it was assigned to the Tsar, Alexander I., to be ruled as a separate constitutional kingdom. Prussia, however, recovered Posen, with Thorn and Danzig, while Austria regained West Galicia—from which Cracow and its environs were subtracted in order to form a tiny independent republic. The Vienna arrangement was not a permanent one. The Poles rebelled in 1830 and lost their constitution. In 1847 they were fully absorbed into the Russian Empire. During the preceding year (1846) the Austrian Empire had annexed Cracow. The partition and subjugation of Poland was one of the main causes of the insurgence of European nationalism in the nineteenth century.

MAP IV

Emery Walker Ltd. sc.

THE GROWTH OF PRUSSIA : 1415–1914

The story of the growth of Prussia during the five centuries covered by the accompanying map is largely the history of the Hohenzollern dynasty. In no other country in Europe have politics and personality been so closely associated. Prussia was built up by the ability of its early rulers, as it has been destroyed by the lunacy of its later ones.

In 1415 Frederick of Hohenzollern, Burgrave of Nuremberg, was by the favour of the Emperor Sigismund placed in possession of the Mark of Brandenburg. Two years later he was formally and solemnly invested with the rank and title of an Elector of the Holy Roman Empire. These imperial concessions implied an increase of dignity, but not an enlargement of joy. The electoral office involved the primitive Hohenzollerns in the responsibility of the administration of an exceedingly ramshackle empire ; the removal from Nuremberg to Berlin meant the abandonment of a comfortable little government in a prosperous commercial city for the administration of a desolate frontier province, poor and unprofitable, almost indefensible, and liable to incessant raids by Slavs from the East, Saxons from the South, Scandinavians from the North, and even French from the West. The Mark had originally been created in the tenth century as a defence of the eastern frontier of Germany against the barbarians who dwelt between the Elbe and the Oder. This " Old Mark " had in 1133 passed into the hands of a vigorous line of Margraves known as the Ascanian House, and they before their extinction in 1320 had added to their possessions the " Middle Mark," with its northern appendages of Priegnitz and Ukermark, together with something rather more than a bridgehead across the Oder at Frankfort. It was this enlarged and already composite margravate that Frederick acquired in 1415. It was a territory without natural frontiers, or homogeneous population, or *raison d'être*. It demanded either expansion or extinction. That it escaped extinction was due to the successful acquisitiveness of a series of Hohenzollern rulers, among whom the Great Elector (1640–88) and Frederick the Great (1740–86) rank first.

To enumerate the pretexts and describe the processes by means of which the Hohenzollern margravate, monarchy, and empire were successively built up would require more space than can here be spared. The student who wishes to pursue this theme must be referred to the excellent volume by Messrs. Marriott and Robertson entitled *The Evolution of Prussia* (Clarendon Press, 1915). The main steps alone can here be mentioned. They were as follows : (1) The New Mark was added by the Elector Frederick II. in 1455. (2) The Elector Albert Achilles, 1470–1486, acquired numerous small tracts, mainly on his frontiers, such as Krossen, just above Frankfort on the Oder. (3) The Elector John Cicero, 1486–99, secured Zossen, a district not large but valuable as being only some twenty miles south of Berlin. (4) In the sixteenth century the most important additions were Ruppin (1524), which straightened the northern frontier of the Middle Mark, and the secularised bishoprics of Brandenburg, Havelburg, and Lebus (1548). (5) The seventeenth century opened with the immensely significant union of the margravate of Brandenburg with the remote duchy of East Prussia. This duchy had been conquered during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries from the pagan Wends by the crusading Order of Teutonic Knights. In 1511 the High Mastership of this Order was conferred upon a minor Hohenzollern, Albert of Ansbach. In 1528, the Reformation having broken out in Germany, he sought to make the best of both worlds by becoming Protestant, by marrying, and by appropriating the territory of his Order, agreeing to hold it as a feudal duchy under the king of Poland. The Hohenzollerns of Brandenburg were much interested in these proceedings of their relative. They never rested until they secured the reversion of his heritage. In 1618, the Albertine line having come to an end in the imbecile duke, Albert Frederick, they succeeded to the duchy. (6) Meantime, another important question of inheritance had

risen in Western Germany. The Elector, John Sigismund of Brandenburg (1608–19), had claims to the succession in the duchies of Cleves and Jülich. In 1614 a partition was effected, according to which the Elector was to receive Cleves, Mark, and Ravensberg. This settlement, however, was reopened by the Thirty Years' War, and it was not till 1666 that actual occupation of these three territories was obtained. (7) The Thirty Years' War is specially associated with the name of the Great Elector. Before he succeeded to the margravate, Brandenburg suffered severely from the ravages of both the Protestant and the Catholic armies, in the direct track of whose most furious conflicts it unhappily lay. He speedily reorganised his military forces and intervened so effectively on the Protestant side that at the Peace of Westphalia (1648) he received as his reward Eastern Pomerania, together with the secularised bishoprics of Halberstadt, Minden, and Cammin, and the reversion of the archbishopric of Magdeburg, which actually passed into Prussian hands thirty-two years later (1680). In 1656 he freed East Prussia from its dependence on Poland. (8) Frederick, successor to the Great Elector (1688–1713), took part on the Austrian side in the War of the Spanish Succession, from which he emerged with the title of king in Prussia and with the prospect of the addition of Upper Guelderland to his dominions (it was actually ceded 1715). (9) The next Hohenzollern, the soldier-king, Frederick William I., secured from the spoils of the Northern War (1720) a large part of Western Pomerania, including Stettin, Usedom, and Wollin, which gave control of all the navigation of the lower Oder. (10) After the soldier-king came his son, known as Frederick the Great, who began his reign by seizing the Austrian province of Silesia (1740–42). In 1744 he inherited East Friesland, including Emden, and thus became an oceanic potentate. In 1772 he assisted in the first partition of Poland (see the preceding map) and thus secured West Prussia and Ermeland, which linked up his Baltic kingdom with his German Electorate. (11) The second and third partitions of Poland fell in the reign of Frederick William II. (1786–1797). They gave to the Hohenzollern House the immense districts of South Prussia (1793) and New East Prussia (1795). During the same reign, too, Ansbach and Bayreuth fell by inheritance to the Prussian king (1791). (12) The Napoleonic reconstitution of Germany, 1801–1803, deprived Prussia of her territories on the west of the Rhine, but gave her in compensation five times as much on the east side of the river, including the bishoprics of Münster, Hildesheim, and Paderborn.

This steady expansion of Prussia received a rude check as a result of the crushing victory of Napoleon over Frederick William III. at Jena (1806) and the humiliating Treaty of Tilsit (1807). The Prussian monarchy was dismembered and reduced to about one-half its former size. The boundary-line of 1807–15 should be carefully observed on the map. The Congress of Vienna found one of its most difficult tasks to be the reconstitution of Prussia. In the end Prussia had to abandon all her Polish acquisitions under the second and third Partition Treaties except Posen and Thorn ; but she received in compensation the rest of Western Pomerania, about one-third of Saxony, and the extensive provinces of Westphalia and the Rhine (including Cologne, Aix-la-Chapelle, Coblenz, and Trier). During the half-century 1815–1865, the only noteworthy accretions were Lichtenberg (1834), Hohenzollern-Hechingen and Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen (1845), and Lauenburg (1865). Then came the Austro-Prussian War of 1866, with its extrusion of the Habsburgs from Germany, its dissolution of the *Bund*, and its reconstruction of North Germany under Prussian leadership. In the midst of this upheaval Prussia was able to annex Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and the free city of Frankfort. Five years later the Franco-Prussian War broke out. Its result was to absorb all the German peoples into the victorious Prussian monarchy, upon which the name " The German Empire " was bestowed (see next map).

GERMANY
1815-1914
English Miles
0 50 100 200
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
ENGLAND
HOLLAND
NETHERLANDS
1815-1831
BELGIUM
FRANCE
SWITZERLAND
KINGDOM OF ITALY (1861)
ADRIATIC SEA
DENMARK
SWEDEN
Copenhagen
Bornholm (To Denmark)
Boundary of Denmark in 1815
Heligoland British 1814-90 German 1890 Prussian 1891
SCHLESWIG
HOLSTEIN
Schleswig
Kiel
Lübeck
Hamburg
Bremen
Stralsund
MECKLENBURG
Schwerin
Strelitz
Stettin
POMERANIA
Danzig
WEST PRUSSIA
EAST PRUSSIA
Königsberg
Memel
Pregel
Vistula
Thorn
KINGDOM OF POLAND
Warsaw
RUSSIA
Berlin
BRANDENBURG
POSEN
Posen
Breslau
SILESIA
Oder
Elbe
Weser
Hanover
Brunswick
Magdeburg
SAXONY
Leipzig
Dresden
THURINGIAN STATES
HESSE
Cassel
Frankfort
Mainz
Darmstadt
Münster
WESTPHALIA
Düsseldorf
RHINE PROVINCE
Cologne
Coblenz
NASSAU
Mosella
Rhine
Meuse
Amsterdam
Antwerp
Brussels
Liège
Lille
Sedan
Luxemburg
LUXEMBURG
Reims
Paris
Seine
Loire
Nancy
Metz
LORRAINE
Strassburg
Colmar
Mülhausen
Belfort
Basel
Dijon
Nevers
Lyons
St. Etienne
Rhone
Saône
Geneva
SAVOY (to France 1860)
K. OF SARDINIA (until 1859)
Turin
Po
Milan
LOMBARDY
Verona
Trent
Venice
Trieste
ISTRIA
Pola
VENETIA
CARNIOLA
CROATIA
Drave
Save
Innsbruck
TYROL
SALZBURG
CARINTHIA
STYRIA
Inn
Danube
Ulm
Augsburg
Munich
BAVARIA
Bayreuth
Nuremberg
Ansbach
Regensburg
WÜRTTEMBERG
Stuttgart
BADEN
PALATINATE (to Bavaria)
Mainz
Frankfort
Prague
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
Brünn
Vienna
LOWER AUSTRIA
UPPER AUSTRIA
March
Budapest
HUNGARY
TRANSYLVANIA
Theiss
Cracow
GALICIA
Lemberg
REP. OF CRACOW (to Austria 1846)
Boundary of German Confederation 1815-1866
Austrian Territory 1815
French Territory 1815
Prussian Territory 1815
Prussian acquisitions 1815-1866
Boundary of North German Confederation 1866-1871
Alsace-Lorraine (annexed 1871)
Boundary of the German Empire since 1871
BR. = Brunswick HOH. = Hohenzollern LIP. = Lippe OLD. = to Oldenburg
R. = Reuss SCH. = Schwarzburg-Sondershausen & Schwarzbg.-Rudolstadt
S.L. = Schaumburg-Lippe W. = Waldeck LAU. = Lauenburg
Longitude East 20° of Greenwich
Emery Walker Ltd. sc.

MAP V

GERMANY: 1815–1914

Mediaeval Germany in the eleventh century of the Christian era under the Emperor Henry III. had more nearly attained national unity than any other of the tribal or feudal federations of Western Europe. But the promise of unification was not fulfilled. The successors of Henry III., lured by their illusory pseudo-Roman titles of Caesar and Augustus, neglected their German interests, and wasted their energies on destructive conflicts with the Papacy, or in futile efforts to establish their authority over Italy and Sicily. Hence when, at the end of the fifteenth century, England, France, and Spain became strong, centralised, national states, Germany sank into a chaos of complete feudal disintegration. The name Germany, indeed, ceased to be much more than a geographical expression, under which was included a congeries of some 360 almost independent powers or impotencies. True, there was usually an elected "emperor" in existence to whom all these petty rulers owed a nominal allegiance; but his empire was devoid of executive force, and such influence as he had was due to his private resources. After 1437 the Habsburg Duke of Austria was regularly chosen to hold the titular headship of this "Holy Roman Empire of the German nation." The Reformation of the sixteenth century still further weakened the slender authority of the Habsburg emperor, since it alienated from him the majority of the North German princes and cities, who generally adopted some form of Protestant religion. The Treaties of Westphalia which ended the Thirty Years' War in 1648 stereotyped the divisions of Germany for a century and a half.

Although some changes took place in Germany during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries—the most important of which are delineated and described in the map illustrating the growth of Prussia—in the main the arrangements of 1648 held good at the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789, and indeed until the Revolutionary Wars had raged for some years, and Austria had been defeated and compelled to make peace at Campo Formio in 1797. From 1797 till 1809 Germany passed through a rapid and bewildering succession of transformations which it is impossible in our limited space, and also unnecessary, for us to trace in detail. Suffice it to say that at the close of that critical period of twelve years, when conditions had become stabilised once more, (1) France had annexed all Germany west of the Rhine; (2) the Holy Roman Empire had been swept away and a more limited Empire of Austria set up in its place; (3) Prussia had been deprived of half her territories; and (4) all the rest of Germany had been incorporated into a so-called Confederation of the Rhine, the effective control of which lay in the hands of Napoleon. [*Vide* inset on Map No. 2.]

The overthrow of Napoleon (1813–15) destroyed this new organisation of Germany, and one of the most difficult of the problems which faced the diplomatists at the Congress of Vienna was the question in what form should Germany be reconstituted. Three schemes were propounded: first, the revival of the Holy Roman Empire—but the Habsburg ruler of Austria declined re-election to the visionary office which he had gladly abandoned; secondly, the formation of a German Federation—but against this the princes, jealous of their independence, protested; thirdly, a mere Confederation or *Bund*, a permanent league of autonomous potentates—and this scheme, the least satisfactory of the three, had to be adopted. The Napoleonic upheaval, however, had not been without its permanent effects. Many of the small states, especially the ecclesiastical principalities, had disappeared beyond the possibility of resuscitation Hence the *Bund* of 1815 consisted of only thirty-nine states, viz. six kingdoms (Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Hanover, Württemberg, Saxony); one electorate (Hesse-Cassel); seven grand-duchies (Baden, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Hesse-Darmstadt, Luxemburg, Oldenburg, and Saxe-Weimar); eight duchies (Nassau, Brunswick, Holstein with Lauenburg, Saxe-Gotha, Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Bernburg, Anhalt-Köthen, and Saxe-Hildburghausen); thirteen principalities (Saxe-Coburg, etc., etc.), and four free cities (Hamburg, Lübeck, Bremen,

Frankfort-on-Main). The central organ of the *Bund* was a Diet of diplomatic agents established in perpetual session at Frankfort-on-Main. It was, however, futile from the first. This futility was due to two chief causes: one was the chronic antagonism of Austria and Prussia: the other was the stolid refusal of the princes to obey the commands of the Diet, and the absence of any means for enforcing the Diet's authority. Hence anarchy was restored to Germany under the pseudonym of the constitution—anarchy tempered only by the despotism of Austria and Prussia when they could manage to work together.

Such was the *Bund*, or Confederation, of 1815, and such it continued to be until 1848, when for three years it was suspended by revolution. During this period, 1815–48, however, one notable movement towards the unification of Germany under Prussian hegemony took place. In 1819 Prussia initiated her famous customs-union or *Zollverein* by means of an agreement with Schwarzburg-Sondershausen. Similar agreements were made with Hesse-Darmstadt (1825), Bavaria and Württemberg (1829), and Hesse-Cassel (1831). Saxony and other states acceded in 1833 and a general union was instituted. Later additions included Baden (1835), Frankfort (1836), Brunswick and Luxemburg (1842). By 1848 Austria and Hanover were the only important powers of Germany that held aloof.

The Revolution of 1848 upset for a time both *Bund* and *Zollverein*. But Germany was not then ripe for democracy, and in 1851 the old order was restored. With it, however, came Bismarck as a factor in the Prussian Government, and he made the elimination of Austria from Germany and the suppression of democracy within Germany fundamental features of his policy. By means of three wars, deliberately planned and waged with ruthless efficiency, he achieved his purpose of the unification of Germany under the military autocracy of the Prussian House of Hohenzollern.

The Danish War of 1864 placed the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein with Lauenburg under the joint control of Austria and Prussia.

The Austro-Prussian War of 1866, precipitated mainly by disputes concerning the disposition of the two conquered duchies, on the one hand expelled Austria from Germany altogether, and on the other hand enabled Prussia to annex not only Schleswig-Holstein but also Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and the free city of Frankfort. Next year (1867) a new North-Germany Confederation was established under Prussian headship. It consisted of twenty-two states, viz. two kingdoms (Prussia and Saxony), five grand-duchies, five duchies, seven principalities, and three free cities.

The Southern German States—in particular Bavaria, Baden, Württemberg—held aloof, fearful of loss of independence. They tended, now that their old colleague Austria was overthrown, to turn to France as an ally against the menacing ascendancy of Prussia. Bismarck by three years (1867–70) of skilful and unscrupulous diplomacy managed to wean them from France and to engineer the war with Napoleon III., which he saw would be necessary before German unification could be completed. The result of the Franco-Prussian War was, first, the founding of the German Empire, in which the Southern States were joined to the Northern Confederation in a new federal constitution; secondly, the annexation from France of the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. No further territorial changes of importance marked the progress of continental Germany from 1871 till the outbreak of the Great War of 1914–1918. In 1884, however, Germany began to establish her colonial empire [*vide* Map No. 9], and in 1890 she effected with a too-friendly Britain the exchange of Zanzibar for Heligoland.

One further point may be mentioned in connection with this map. The Netherlands were included in the mediaeval Germanic Empire, and indeed were not formally recognised as independent till 1648. At that time the Dutch Netherlands formed a federal republic under the stadtholdership of the Prince of Orange, while the Belgian Netherlands were included in the Spanish monarchy. In 1714 the Belgian Netherlands were ceded to Austria, and Austrian they remained until they were overrun by the armies of the French Revolutionists and absorbed in the French Republic. They continued to be controlled by the French, under one form of government or another, until 1814, when the allied forces of the Fourth Coalition occupied them. At the Congress of Vienna the Belgian Netherlands were united to the Dutch Netherlands under the restored House of Orange in order that there might be a strong barrier-state on the north-east frontier of France. The union, however, was not a happy one. In 1830 the Belgians revolted and secured their independence. This independence was recognised by the Great Powers in 1831 (Treaty of London), but not by Holland. Dutch recognition came, however, in 1839, and at that date Belgium was established as a permanently neutralised state under the protection and guarantee of Britain, Austria, France, Russia, and Prussia.

MAP VI

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THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE: 1815–1914

Few relics of the Middle Ages suffered more under the blows of Napoleon than did the House of Habsburg. The possessions of that House, accumulated by a series of diplomatic marriages and politic wars extending over a period of five centuries, were more widely scattered and more heterogeneous than those of any other Great Power. When in 1792 the Emperor Leopold was forced into war by Revolutionary France he was not only the titular head of the Holy Roman Empire, but was also the direct ruler of Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, Moravia, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Vorarlberg, Tyrol, Croatia, Slavonia, Galicia, Milan, Mantua, Tuscany, together with far-sundered territories such as Breisgau on the Rhine and the Belgian Netherlands. These miscellaneous dominions contained inhabitants drawn from more than a dozen different races, among which the chief were German, Magyar, Czech, Croat, Slovene, Slovak, Pole, Ruthene, Roumanian, Italian, Fleming, and Belgian. The government of so varied an assortment of countries and peoples was almost necessarily autocratic and imperial, as opposed to democratic and national. Hence at the close of the eighteenth century, when the spirit of the French Revolution was abroad, a general discontent was rife throughout the Habsburg monarchy foreboding revolt and dismemberment. In these circumstances it is not remarkable that during the struggle with France the House of Habsburg suffered a series of shattering reverses. Four times were the imperial armies overthrown, and four times was the government of Vienna compelled to accept humiliating terms of peace. It lies outside the scope of this note to specify the numerous territorial rearrangements effected successively by the treaties of Campo Formio (1797), Lunéville (1801), Pressburg (1805), and Vienna (1809). Suffice it to say that the House of Habsburg lost all its outlying possessions and was reduced to the condition of a purely Danubian principality which had no access to the sea at any point. In 1806, too, the Holy Roman Empire (founded by Charlemagne a thousand years before) was dissolved, and its ruler forced to restrict himself to the new territorial title of "Emperor of Austria."

The defeat of Napoleon in 1813–15 brought the Habsburg dominions once more into the melting-pot, and enabled extensive recoveries to be effected. The Emperor Francis, however, and his able minister, Metternich, who together controlled Austrian policy at the Congress of Vienna, had no wish to restore the whole chaotic scheme of 1792. They refused to revive the Holy Roman Empire, and they preferred to abandon for ever their old scattered possessions on the Rhine and in the Netherlands in order to establish a stronger hold over Italy and Dalmatia. Hence in return for their surrender of Belgium, Luxemburg, Breisgau, and various other small territories in the west, they received or recovered Salzburg (in exchange for Tuscany), Lombardy, Venetia, Trieste, Istria, and Dalmatia with Cattaro. The Germanic portions of this reconstituted Austrian Empire [see boundaries shown in the accompanying map] were included in the new German Confederation or *Bund*.

The principal subsequent changes in the Austrian Empire were as follows: In 1846, as a sequel to the Russian absorption of the kingdom of Poland, the small Polish Republic of Cracow (set up in 1815) was annexed. In 1848 there was a general upheaval in the Habsburg dominions, accompanied by the fall of Metternich and the abdication of the Emperor Ferdinand—an upheaval which seemed to portend the imminent dissolution of the "ramshackle empire." The Magyars of Hungary, the Czechs of Bohemia, the Slavs of Illyria, the Italians of Lombardy and Venetia, the Poles of Galicia, the Ruthenes of Ladomeria, all rose in simultaneous revolt. If only they had been united the Habsburg monarchy must have collapsed. But they were divided by irreconcilable antagonisms among themselves: Magyar loathed Slav; Pole hated Ruthene. Hence the Habsburg by cleverly dividing his foes was able to continue to rule.

The revolts were all crushed, although the crushing of the last and most formidable—that of the Magyars in Hungary—required the assistance of the Russian Tsar. The most complete of all the failures of 1848 was that of the Italians. In spite of aid rendered to the rebels by the king of Sardinia, the re-assertion of Austrian authority over Lombardy and Venetia was so emphatic that all clear-sighted Italian statesmen recognised that the expulsion of the "whitecoats" from the peninsula could be effected only by means of foreign help. Hence by the offer of the surrender of Savoy and Nice [*vide* Map No. 7] the co-operation of Napoleon III., Emperor of the French, was secured. The result was the expulsion of the Austrians from Lombardy in 1859. Since nothing further could be hoped for from the French, the Italian patriots next turned to Prussia, which under Bismarck was preparing to oust Austria from Germany. The sequel to the Austro-Prussian War of 1866 was thus not only the destruction of the German Confederation and the total elimination of Austria from Germany, but also the recovery of Venetia for the new Italian kingdom. This double disaster to the House of Habsburg necessitated a reorganisation of the whole administration. By the *Ausgleich*, or compromise, of 1867, the Hungarians were taken into equal partnership and the Dual Monarchy (which lasted till 1918) was constituted.

In 1878 Bosnia and Herzegovina were by the Treaty of Berlin placed under Austro-Hungarian rule although they were still regarded as part of the Turkish Empire. In 1908, as a sequel to the Turkish Revolution of that year, Austria-Hungary repudiated Turkish sovereignty and announced their full incorporation with the Habsburg dominions. This was one of the first of the steps that led to the World War of 1914.

Emery Walker Ltd. sc.

ITALY: 1815–1914

In the sixth century of the Christian era Italy lost the unity which for a thousand years she had enjoyed under the Roman name. In the early part of the century, it is true, the Gothic invaders were overthrown and expelled (533–553), but the declining Roman power was exhausted in the conflict, and when in 568 the Lombards entered the peninsula in force they established themselves almost without opposition. But they never made themselves masters of the whole of Italy. Open country rather than cities attracted them, and Rome, Naples, Venice, Genoa, and many other walled towns remained under the authority of the Byzantine Emperor. This authority soon, however, became merely nominal. The Byzantine power decayed; theological quarrels separated Greek from Latin Christendom; until finally in 800 Pope Leo III. signalised the formal repudiation of the control of the ruler of Constantinople by crowning a new Roman Emperor in the West, viz. Charles the Great, King of the Franks. One cause which undoubtedly contributed to this translation of the Empire was that a few years earlier (774) Charles had overthrown the Lombards and had himself assumed their crown. But not even Charles the Great was able to restore unity to the peninsula. He was never recognised in Venice, or in Naples and the provinces of the South. Disunion was still further increased when in the ninth century the Saracens, having overrun Sicily, attained a foothold on the mainland. In vain throughout the Middle Ages did Emperors and Popes seek to extend their authority over all the peoples of Italy, and when Emperors and Popes began to quarrel with one another (as they did with deadly ferocity in the eleventh century) the task of unification became hopeless. Empire and Papacy destroyed one another as political powers, and each part of Italy was left free to develop its own independence.

In these circumstances a medley of powers grew up, of which the most important were Naples, the Papal States, Florence, Milan, and Venice. Their wars, intrigues, alliances, and treacheries fill the history of the later mediaeval period. Finally, they began to call in the greater European powers to aid them in their domestic brawls, and as a result Italy became the battle-ground of French and Spaniards, Swiss and Germans. Thus it continued until the time of the French Revolution.

By that time, however, a new actor of prime importance had appeared upon the Italian stage. This was the House of Savoy. Established in 1027 in the Burgundian territories south of the Lake of Geneva, this House had gradually extended its dominion, by the usual means of marriage and war, until it stretched across the Alps and by 1748 reached almost as far as Piacenza down the valley of the Po. It had also, in 1720, acquired (in exchange for Sicily) Sardinia, from which island the head of the House took the title of king. The king of Sardinia became involved in the Revolutionary Wars in 1792. He at once lost his ancestral land of Savoy, and in 1796 Piedmont also was reduced. This conquest of Piedmont was the first notable achievement of Napoleon Bonaparte. The great commander followed it up by a brilliant series of campaigns, in which the whole Italian peninsula was brought under French control. It lies outside our scope to trace them in detail. Suffice it to say that by 1810 Italy had been reduced to three political divisions, all dominated by Napoleon. First: Savoy, Piedmont, Genoa, Parma, Tuscany, and the Papal States had been incorporated into the French Empire. Secondly: Milan, Mantua, Modena, the Legations, and Venice had been combined into a "kingdom of Italy" under Napoleon's step-son, Eugène de Beauharnais. Thirdly: Naples was ruled by Napoleon's brother-in-law, Murat (*vide* inset on Map 2).

The semblance of unity thus given to Italy by Napoleon was destroyed in 1815. Eight States were set up on the general principle of the restoration of the *status quo ante*: (1) Austria received Lombardy and Venetia; (2) the king of Sardinia came back to Savoy and Piedmont,

to which were added Genoa and Nice ; (3) Parma, Lucca, Modena, and Tuscany recovered independence under members of the House of Habsburg ; (4) the Papal States were returned to the Pope ; (5) Naples was handed back to Ferdinand of Bourbon, whose authority for ten years had been limited to Sicily.

This reactionary settlement was profoundly distasteful to Italian patriots, and at once a movement began to expel the Austrians, to unify the peninsula, and to establish constitutional government. Strenuous efforts were made in 1821, 1831, and 1848 to realise these ideals, but without avail. It became evident that Italy could not accomplish her liberation without external assistance. Hence in 1858 the king of Sardinia made with Napoleon III. the Compact of Plombières, which secured French aid. Then followed the war of 1859, as the result of which the Austrians were driven out of Lombardy. As a sequel to this great event, Parma, Tuscany, Modena, Romagna, Umbria, and the Marches (the last three being parts of the Papal States) expelled their rulers and elected to join the growing Sardinian kingdom (1860). Next Sicily and Naples rose in revolt, and, with the aid of Garibaldi and his Thousand, expelled the Bourbons, and sought incorporation with what now began to be called the " kingdom of Italy " (1860–61). Only Venetia and the States of the Church remained unredeemed. The acquisition of these resulted from the politic alliance of the kingdom of Italy with the rising power of Prussia. In 1866 Italy joined Prussia against Austria, and although she herself suffered some serious reverses by land and sea, she reaped her reward in the occupation of Venetia—Venetia, however, shorn of the important regions of the Southern Tyrol and Istria. In 1870 the Franco-Prussian War compelled Napoleon III. to withdraw the garrisons which hitherto he had kept in Rome to support the authority of his ally the Pope. Hence on September 20 of that year the Italian troops were able, after a merely nominal struggle, to occupy the Eternal City, and to complete the structure of the kingdom.

But still the *Italia irredenta* of the North-East frontier remained as an inducement to Italy to enter the Great War on the side of the Allies in 1915.

MAP VIII

Emery Walker Ltd. sc

THE BALKAN PENINSULA: 1815–1914

If one were asked to place in order of demerit the evil men whose machinations helped to precipitate the World War of 1914, one would have to assign a high place in the scale of bad pre-eminence to John Cantacuzenos, the Byzantine usurper of the fourteenth century. For it was he who called the Ottoman Turks into Europe. As the result of his treachery they first established themselves at Gallipoli in 1358. From that date their advance was rapid. They secured Adrianople in 1361; overthrew coalitions of the Balkan and other Christian peoples at the Maritza, 1371, Kossovo, 1389, and Nicopolis, 1396; secured Salonica, 1428, and completed the conquest of the Byzantine Empire by the capture of Constantinople in 1453. The conqueror of the imperial city, Mahomet II., before his death in 1481 had extended the Ottoman power over nearly the whole of the Balkan Peninsula, over the Danubian principalities of Moldavia and Walachia, and over most of the Ægean islands. But Turkish acquisitions in Europe did not end there. Before the end of the reign of the great sultan, Solyman the Magnificent (1520–66), under whom the Ottoman power reached its meridian height, all Hungary (except a strip west of Komorn and the river Raab), Transylvania, Bukovina, and Bessarabia, besides many Asiatic territories, had been added to the enormous and menacing Turkish dominion.

The beginning of the Ottoman decline may perhaps be dated from the defeat of the Sultan's Mediterranean fleet by the Spaniards at Lepanto in 1571. But no marked decadence was evident until a century later, when in 1683 Vienna resisted a determined assault, and when three years later Buda Pest was recovered for the Hungarians. From that time onward the Turkish frontiers were rapidly pushed back. Until the middle of the eighteenth century the task of recovering Christian Europe from the Asiatic oppressor fell upon the House of Habsburg, and gradually during that period all Hungary and Transylvania, with much of Slavonia and Croatia, were liberated. Then Russia, as champion of the Greek Church and the Slavonic peoples, entered the arena and claimed to share with Austria the heritage of the "Sick Man." Hence arose unhappy rivalries and disastrous intrigues. By the Treaty of Kutchuk Kainardji, 1774, Russia acquired the right of protection over the Greek Christians in the Turkish Empire.

During the four centuries which separated the fatal field of Kossovo from the French Revolution (1389–1789) the subject Christian peoples of the Balkan Peninsula had remained for the most part apathetic and inert. True, the Montenegrins in their mountain fastnesses were never fully reduced; but Serbians, Bulgarians, Greeks, and Roumanians seemed to be crushed beyond the possibility of revivification. The French Revolution, however, with its sequel in Napoleonic adventures in the Near East and British occupations, had a remarkable effect in restoring animation. Montenegro asserted complete independence in 1796 and secured its recognition by Turkey in 1799. Serbia rose in revolt in 1804 and by 1817 obtained virtual autonomy, although the Ottoman garrisons were not withdrawn till 1867, nor full recognition of sovereignty given till 1878. Greece began her great struggle for national existence in 1821, and by the aid of Russia, France, and Britain achieved it in 1831. The Danubian principalities, by the good offices of Russia in the Treaty of Adrianople, 1829, became practically self-governing States, acknowledging a merely nominal Turkish suzerainty. Even this was removed by the Treaty of Paris, 1856, and then the two principalities speedily effected their union into the single State of "Roumania" (1859). The Treaty of Berlin (1878) recognised the complete independence of Roumania, and in 1881 its ruler, Charles of Hohenzollern, assumed the title of King. The Bulgarians were the last of the Balkan peoples to strike for freedom. They were situated too near the centre of the Turkish power to move with impunity. In 1875, however, they put their fate to the test. The Turk retaliated with the "Bulgarian

atrocities." Russia came to the rescue of the oppressed Christian race. The Russo-Turkish War, 1877-78, was followed, first, by the Treaty of San Stefano, which proposed to set up a large autonomous Bulgaria that would have dominated the Balkan Peninsula ; secondly, by the Treaty of Berlin, which drastically reduced the Bulgarian boundaries and established the condition of things that in the main endured until the Balkan War of 1912.

The main territorial changes effected during the years 1815–78 were as follows: (1) The Treaty of Adrianople (1829), which bound Turkey to accept any settlement of the Greek question agreed upon by the Powers, was followed by a Protocol (1830), which fixed the Greek frontier at a line drawn from the river Aspro-Potamo, on the Gulf of Patras, to the mouth of the river Spercheius on the east. This line of partition caused, however, great dissatisfaction, since it left Acarnania and much of Ætolia to the Turk. Hence it was revised in 1831 and the line from the Gulf of Arta to the Gulf of Volo substituted. (2) The Treaty of Paris (1856) compelled Russia to cede to Roumania the southern strip of Bessarabia, which commanded the Danube, and placed the navigation of that river under international control. (3) In 1863 Great Britain ceded to Greece her protectorate over the Ionian Islands.

The Treaty of Berlin (July 1878), which superseded the Russo-Turkish Treaty of San Stefano (March 1878), made profound changes in the Peninsula. An independent Bulgaria, extending from the Danube to the Balkan Mountains, was set up ; Serbia received a small accession of territory including Nish ; Montenegro acquired a strip of Bosnia ; Bosnia and Herzegovina were placed under Austrian control ; Roumania (to her great disgust) was required to restore to Russia the portion of Bessarabia which she had secured in 1856 ; in return, the northern part of the Dobruja was bestowed upon her. The principal subsequent modifications of the Balkan maps were : (1) In 1881 the Greek frontier was extended to include Thessaly and part of Epirus ; (2) in 1885 Eastern Roumelia revolted from Turkey and was joined to Bulgaria ; (3) in 1897 the Greco-Turkish War was followed by a slight rectification of frontier in favour of Turkey ; (4) in 1898 Crete obtained autonomy under European supervision—the nominal suzerainty of Turkey being still recognised ; in 1908 Austria converted her administrative control over Bosnia and Herzegovina into full sovereignty. This last high-handed act led to the formation of the Balkan League, which was primarily anti-Austrian rather than anti-Turkish. Serbia, Montenegro, Bulgaria, and Greece bound themselves together to maintain the freedom of the Peninsula from external control. Hence followed the first Balkan War (1912), which all but expelled the Turk from Europe. This, however, was followed by the suicidal Second Balkan War (1913), in which Bulgaria fought Serbia, Greece, and Montenegro (joined towards the end by Roumania) concerning the partition of the spoil. Bulgaria was defeated and the Treaties of Bucharest and Constantinople (1913) embodied her humiliation. By this settlement of 1913 Serbia acquired parts of Novibazar and Macedonia ; Montenegro, the remainder of Novibazar ; Greece, all Epirus, with the southern portion of Macedonia, including the seaboard from Salonica to Kavala ; Bulgaria, part of Thrace ; Roumania, the southern part of the Dobruja ; while Crete proclaimed her union with Greece. In February 1914 Albania became an autonomous principality under Frederick William of Wied, but his rule lasted only until the September of the same year. By that time the Great War had broken out—a war due to no small extent to the unsatisfactory provisions of the Balkan Treaties of 1913. In November 1914 Turkey entered the war on the side of the Central Empires, and thus provided the civilised world with an opportunity to revoke the invitation of John Cantacuzenos.

AFRICA
1815-1914
English Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500 1000
European Spheres of Influence
1815 1900
British
French
Portuguese
Spanish
German
Italian
Belgian
Boundaries in 1914
SOUTH AFRICA
1881-1914
British Sth. Africa after 1900
Boundary of the Union of South Africa, 1910
Basuto Land annexed to Cape Colony 1871: a Crown Colony since 1884
1 = Annexed to Natal from Transvaal, 1903.
Emery Walker Ltd. sc.
MAP IX

AFRICA: 1815–1914

I

Few maps changed more during the course of the eventful century 1815–1914 than did that of Africa. At the beginning of the period, although the whole of the coast-line was known and much of it was occupied by European settlers, the interior of the Continent was still almost wholly unexplored. Of the four great rivers—the Nile, the Niger, the Congo, the Zambesi—not one had been traced to its source. The vast lakes of the east were undiscovered and unsuspected. The lofty snow-clad equatorial mountains of Uganda had yet to be discerned by the eye of the white man, but instead of them the early nineteenth-century maps showed, south of the Sahara, an enormous range of entirely imaginary "Mountains of the Moon." The natives of the central forests remained undisturbed by civilisation. Four European nations had settlements upon the African littoral. (1) Britain so early as 1631 had planted a station on the Gambia; in 1667 she had secured a footing at Cape Coast Castle on the Gold Coast; in 1787 Sierra Leone had been acquired; and finally, in 1814, the Cape of Good Hope had been taken over by treaty arrangement from its original settlers, the Dutch. (2) Portugal possessed, as the relics of her fifteenth-century voyages of discovery, the Madeira and the Cape Verde Islands, with a portion of the Guinea and Angola coasts on the western mainland, while on the east she held a series of posts along the Mozambique shore facing Madagascar. (3) France, by the peace of 1814, had just recovered Senegal which Britain had taken from her in 1763. (4) Spain held the Canary Islands which she had conquered in 1495, and on the mainland, Ceuta, opposite Gibraltar, which she had seized in 1580.

II

There is no space here to summarise, however briefly, the fascinating story of the nineteenth-century exploration of the interior of Africa. An excellent short account of it will be found in Mr. E. Heawood's *Geography of Africa*, while those who desire fuller information will be able to obtain it from Dr. J. S. Keltie's *Partition of Africa* or Sir Harry Johnston's *History of the Colonisation of Africa*. Suffice it to say that the sources of the Nile and the Great Lakes were opened up by Bourbon, Speke, Grant, Baker, and others; that the devious course of the Niger was traced by a long series of travellers, among whom Mungo Park, Clapperton, Barth, and Overweg were eminent; and that the vast basins of the Zambesi and the Congo were explored by a devoted band of missionaries and adventurers, of whom Livingstone and Stanley were pioneers. The newly discovered regions, with their inexhaustible stores of natural wealth, speedily became the subject of dispute between rival European powers. Happily these disputes were prevented from attaining the temperature of war by a series of sedative discussions, of which the Berlin Conference of 1884 was the most general and the most important. By means of negotiation Africa was divided into spheres of influence, and rules were laid down peacefully to regulate all future European expansion. By that time Germany, Italy, and Belgium—three kingdoms new in Europe itself—had appeared upon the African scene. Hence before the close of our period seven European states shared the spoils of the Southern Continent, and of its 11,500,000 square miles of territory, only Abyssinia (350,000 square miles) and Liberia (41,000 square miles) remained wholly free and independent. All that can be attempted here is a cursory enumeration of the main acquisitions of the seven powers during the hundred years under review.

III

Britain, in the region of her earliest settlements, secured Lagos by cession from a native king in 1861. The Niger Company began its operations in 1879; in 1886 it obtained its governing charter; in 1900 political authority was transferred to the Crown. In South Africa, Dutch discontent with English rule led to the Great Trek in 1833–40. This resulted, directly or indirectly, in the founding of three new colonies, viz. Natal, Orange River, and Transvaal. Over each of them Britain was ultimately compelled, owing to troubles with the natives, to

assert authority, viz. Natal, 1842; Orange River, 1848; and Transvaal, 1877. The settlement of Natal remained permanent; the other two, however, recovered independence in 1854 and 1881 respectively, and not until 1900 were they finally incorporated in the British Empire. Meanwhile the activity of various explorers, pioneers, and merchants had extended British control over Basutoland (1871), Bechuanaland (1885), Rhodesia (1889), and Zululand (1897). In East Africa, on the Gulf of Aden, British Somaliland (1884) and the island of Sokotra (1886) were secured as safeguards to the navigation of the Suez Canal and the sea-route to India. The British East Africa Company began its work in 1887. In 1890 Zanzibar was acquired from Germany in exchange for Heligoland. At the same time Uganda was recognised as falling within the British sphere of influence, and its development was commenced. As to Egypt in the north, the making of the Suez Canal in 1869 and the bankruptcy of the Khedive Ismail in 1876 led to a joint English and French control which lasted till 1882, when France withdrew, leaving England alone. The situation was not fully defined until 1904, and even then the fiction of Turkish suzerainty remained. This last relic of mediaevalism, indeed, was not swept away until the outbreak of the Great War. On December 18, 1914, the Turkish suzerainty was repudiated, and the Khedive became a Sultan under British protection. The Sudan was brought under Anglo-Egyptian control as the result of Kitchener's campaigns in 1896–98.

IV

The French immensely extended their African dominions during the nineteenth century. In 1830 the falling Bourbon monarchy sought popularity by annexing Algeria, but it was left to its Orleanist supplanter, Louis Philippe, to develop its resources (1830–48). In 1855 French Somaliland was acquired by purchase from Turkey. In 1881 Tunis was seized and added to Algeria, and then both from the Mediterranean coast and also from the Atlantic base of Senegal a determined effort was made to explore and dominate the whole of North-West Africa, as yet unclaimed by whites. As a result the French reached the ocean at three new points, viz. between Portuguese Guinea and Sierra Leone, the Ivory Coast, and Dahomey. At the same time they penetrated into the interior, a notable stage of their advance being the occupation of Timbuktu in 1894. They claimed Morocco, too, as within their sphere of influence. This claim caused trouble, both with the native rulers and with rival European powers; but a series of treaties, 1904–12, regularised their position and delimited their boundaries. During the same period Madagascar was brought under French control. Active operations began in 1883, and the French protectorate was recognised as established in 1890.

V

As to the other European powers, Portugal started no new colonies in the nineteenth century, but she vastly extended her Angola and Mozambique settlements into their respective hinterlands. Spain, in the partition of 1884, secured rights over the Rio de Oro, and in the Moroccan settlements was allowed to keep Morocco's strip of Mediterranean coast. Germany in 1884 made her first appearance as a colonising power. In that year she occupied Lüderitz Bay (German South-West Africa), Togoland, the Cameroons, and the German East African littoral. Italy proclaimed a protectorate over Eritrea on the Red Sea in 1882; in 1889 she extended her claims to Somaliland, south of Cape Guardafui. She tried, also, but without success, to absorb Abyssinia. In 1912 she annexed Tripoli from Turkey. Finally, Belgium became an African power. In 1879 an International Association was formed by the Belgian King Leopold for the development of Central Africa. In 1884 the territories exploited by the Association were erected into the Congo Free State, with (1885) Leopold as their sovereign. In 1907 this state was formally annexed to Belgium as the Belgian Congo.

VI

It does not fall within the scope of this sketch to chronicle the results of the Great War. It may be noted, however, that during 1914–18 Germany was erased from the list of African powers. Togoland was conquered August 1914, and has been divided between Britain and France. German South-West Africa was reduced by July 1915; it has been ceded as a protectorate to Britain. The Cameroons fell in February 1916; except for a slight modification of the British Nigerian frontier, they have gone to France. Finally, after a prolonged struggle, German East Africa was reduced in November 1918; it has been occupied by Britain under the provisional title of the "Tanganyika Territory."

MAP X

Emery Walker Ltd. sc.

ETHNOGRAPHICAL MAP OF CENTRAL EUROPE

I

Ethnography, the science which endeavours to depict on a map the racial and national divisions of mankind, is a branch of knowledge still in its infancy. The preliminary problems, indeed, concerning the meanings of the terms "race" and "nationality" can as yet hardly be said to be determined. It seems to be generally agreed, however, that originally and as a species mankind is one, and that the differences which now sharply distinguish the three main groups of men, viz. Ethiopian, Mongolian, and Caucasian, are differences due to the influence of climatic and other environment. The Caucasian, or white race, is that which has made itself dominant in Europe. It used to be the custom among writers of a generation ago to distinguish two great subsections of this race, viz. the Turanian and the Aryan, but it is now recognised that the distinction between the two is linguistic rather than ethnological. Modern investigations incline to a new threefold classification; they divide the principal European peoples into Mediterranean, Nordic, and Alpine. (1) The Mediterranean race is supposed to have spread westward from the primal Indo-Malaysian cradle of humanity until it occupied all the North African littoral. Both Spain and Italy-Sicily were at that remote period joined to Africa, and across these land-bridges the Mediterranean aborigines made their way into Europe. From these were descended the Iberians, who occupied Spain and thence spread northward over Gaul and the British Isles; the Ligurians, who overran Sicily, Italy, and the Riviera; and the Pelasgians, who made their home in the Balkan peninsula. The characteristics of this Mediterranean race are long skull, short stature, dark complexion and hair, broad nose. (2) The Nordic race presents striking superficial differences from the Mediterranean race. Its typical representative is the "blond beast" of Nietzsche—the tall, light, flaxen-haired Teuton. But the cranial measurements of the Nordic man are so nearly proportionate to those of his Mediterranean predecessor that some ethnologists tend to the view that the Nordic man is merely a descendant of Mediterranean ancestors, and that his peculiar features are due to adaptation to the harder conditions of life in Northern Europe. Be that as it may, Scandinavia and North Germany appear to have been his first home. Thence he spread southward up the valleys of the Elbe, the Oder, and the Vistula; and westward towards the North Sea, the Rhine, and the Atlantic Ocean. To this race belonged the Goths, the Vandals, the Franks, the Lombards, the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, and the many kindred peoples who began to play so great a part in European history in the early Middle Ages. (3) The Alpine race, pressing westward from Asiatic pasturelands, forced its way in between these two groups of peoples, and made good its hold on the uplands of Central Europe. Thence it extended its conquests towards the coast, and succeeded in making itself dominant over the Iberians both of Gaul and Britain. The characteristic feature of the members of this race is the short round skull and the broad face. Its western representatives have commonly been known as Celts; its eastern representatives as Slavs.

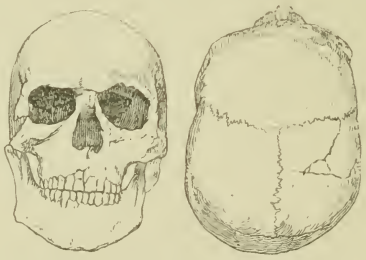
II

It will be seen that these primitive racial distinctions correspond hardly at all to modern ethnographical divisions. There is, indeed, in present-day Europe no such thing as a pure race. Fusion has been going on for countless ages, and only here and there, mainly in island solitudes or mountain fastnesses, can small groups displaying unmistakable racial characteristics be found. In Britain, for instance, all the three races have domiciled themselves. The Iberian type is dominant in the north and west of the island. The occurrence of a prehistoric Alpine

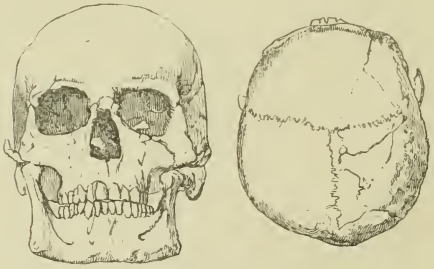
conquest is indicated primarily by the fact that the aboriginal Mediterranean language has been displaced by Celtic dialects. The Nordic type is in the ascendant in the south and east. Race, in truth, has played a secondary part in the formation of the modern nations and groups of nations. Language, and the culture which depends on language, have been incomparably more important, and it is upon language that the main divisions shown in the accompanying map are based. Subsidiary influences have been those of religion, economic interest, political community, and mere geographical contiguity. In Western Europe, in spite of the most varied racial intermixture, so powerful was the ancient impress of the Roman Empire, supplemented by the mediaeval moulding of the Catholic Church, that the term "Latin" marks the fact of the unity that was attained. In Eastern Europe the influence of the Tsars of Muscovy and of the Orthodox Greek Church has similarly consolidated many diverse varieties of Northern Slavs into a cultural community. But Central and Southern Europe is a mass of confused and conflicting groups. Towards the Baltic, Teutonic "Kultur" is dominant. The Letts and Lithuanians, however, represent peoples of Alpine stock that have never been Teutonised in either language or civilisation. The Middle and Lower Danube are held by Magyars and Turks, conquering Asiatic invaders of the Ural-Altaic stock. On the Mediterranean coast Greeks and Albanians retain tongues and traditions, dating from classical days, that keep them ethnologically separate from their Slavonic neighbours.

In a map of the small scale of the present one, the tiny racial and linguistic groups that perplex the reconstructors of Central and Southern Europe have of course to be ignored.

Some further notes on the present distribution of the peoples of Europe will be found in the comments on the last map of this Atlas.



Skull of a long-headed man found at Helperthorpe.



Skull of a round-headed man found at Cowlam.

From *British Barrows*, by William Greenwell, F.S.A., 1877.
By kind permission of the Clarendon Press.

20° A 10° B 0° C 10° D
60°
50°
40°
2
3
4
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
Shetland Is.
Orkney Is.
Scapa Flow
Hebrides
Moray Firth
SCOTLAND
Glasgow
Aberdeen
Dundee
Firth of Forth
Edinburgh
Newcastle
IRELAND
Belfast
Galway
Dublin
Limerick
Cork
Irish Sea
Liverpool
Holyhead
Waterford
WALES
ENGLAND
Hull
Yarmouth
London
Harwich
Dover
Calais
Southampton
Plymouth
Falmouth
Scilly Is.
English Channel
St. of Dover
Cherbourg
Channel Is. (British)
Brest
Amsterdam
HOLLAND
Antwerp
BELGIUM
Brussels
Lille
Rouen
Seine
Oise
Aisne
Paris
Reims
Marne
Verdun
Meuse
Orléans
Loire
Nantes
Bay of Biscay
Rochefort
FRANCE
Nevers
Limoges
Bordeaux
Garonne
Adour
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(French)
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Elba
Tiber
Palermo
Messina
Reggio
Sicily
Catania
Syracuse
Malta (British)
ITALY
YUGO-SLAVIA
CROATIA SLAVONIA
B Meridian of 0° Greenwich C 10° D

Provisional Map of

EUROPE

after the Peace Treaties, 1919-20

English Miles

0 100 200 300 400 500

Territory subject to the League of Nations

Areas for Plebiscite

German territory under Allied military occup'tn

International boundaries in August 1914

F Longitude East 40° of Greenwich G

Emery Walker Ltd. sc.

EUROPE AFTER THE PEACE TREATIES:

1919–20

The ethnographical map on the preceding page portrays two important facts with unmistakable clearness. The first is that in the West of Europe the racial and linguistic masses are solid and compact, and that in this region ethnological boundaries broadly coincide with political boundaries. The second is that in the East of Europe precisely the opposite conditions prevail; there the racial and linguistic units are mixed and scattered; and there political boundaries show a ruthless disregard of ethnological divisions. While on the one hand England, France, Spain, and even Italy have managed to weld together many disparate elements into comparatively homogeneous nations, and have succeeded in founding on the basis of nationality comparatively stable States, on the other hand the empires of Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and even Russia remain loose-knit congeries of discordant fragments. Let us note a little more in detail the situation at the outbreak of the war in 1914. Germany, in spite of the appearance of unity produced by the impress of Prussian autocracy, was not only torn by the particularism of the smaller States, but was weakened by the presence of unassimilated and alien national groups of Wends in Lusatia, Poles in Posen and Danzig, Danes in Schleswig, and French in Alsace-Lorraine. Austria-Hungary consisted of two dominant peoples, viz. the German and the Magyar, together with some ten subject peoples, viz. Czechs, Slovaks, Poles, Ruthenes, Croats, Serbs, Slovenes, Roumanians, Italians, and Jews. Turkey, in her truncated European dominions, still held sway over multitudes of Bulgars and Greeks; while, as a set-off against this, many Turks still lingered in emancipated Serbia, Roumania, Bulgaria, and Greece. Russia, beneath the imposing solidarity of the Tsardom, seethed with the dissensions of some fifty racial and linguistic groups—to say nothing of the aggravating differences due to religious conflicts and divergent economic interests.

The war of 1914 was due to two main causes—the two causes which separately or in combination had again and again during the preceding century defied the efforts of the Concert of Europe to keep the peace. They were (1) imperial ambition, (2) national discontent. There can, of course, be no doubt that imperial ambition played the more prominent rôle. The Pan-German lust for expansion, for markets, for supremacy at sea, for colonial empire, for lordship of the East, for world-dominion—this was the prime precipitant. But it is unquestionable that Pan-German militarism was irritated and excited, was enabled to communicate its hopes and fears to the masses of the Teutonic peoples, and so was placed in a position to triumph, by the restless agitation of Latin and Slavonic groups eager to shake off the Teutonic yoke. The French of Alsace-Lorraine longed to escape from the Zabern tyranny; the Poles of Posen clamoured for reunion with their sundered kinsmen of Warsaw and Galicia; the Czechs of Bohemia groaned for their long-lost independence; the Slovaks of Hungary turned wistful eyes towards Prague. So, too, in the Middle East the Roumanians of Transylvania ardently desired re-amalgamation with their compatriots of Walachia, Moldavia, and Bessarabia; the Serbs of Croatia, Slavonia, Bosnia, and Dalmatia all looked towards the goal of incorporation into a large South-Slavonic State—a goal attainable only by means of the disruption of the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary; in Macedonia and Thrace the disjointed fragments of hostile races and religions waged upon one another a ceaseless war of anathema and extermination. The murder of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand in the streets of Sarajevo on June 28, 1914, was but the spark which lit the flame of imperial ambition and exploded the highly-charged mines of national discontent.

Into the details of the great conflict which raged during the five years 1914–1919 it is alike impossible and needless for us here to enter. Enough to say that Germany, with her

Allies (Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and Bulgaria), after coming within an ace of victory on several occasions, was in the end decisively defeated. She was compelled to beg for an Armistice on November 11, 1918, and to accept the terms of a dictated peace at Versailles on June 28, 1919. By the defeat itself her imperial ambitions were entirely shattered and dissipated. The removal of her oppressive hegemony in Europe made possible the realisation of the national aspirations of many subject peoples. For the collapse of the German military power involved the disruption of the Austro-Hungarian empire, the surrender of Bulgaria, and the utter prostration of Turkey.

The task of the representatives of the victorious Allies, who met in Paris and Versailles to draw up the Treaty of Peace, was one of extraordinary difficulty. The complications caused by the rival and incompatible claims of their own members would have been hard enough to unravel, but these were rendered even more than normally tangled by the existence of several secret engagements (entered into under the extreme stress of the war) and by the disintegration of Russia resulting from the two revolutions of 1917. In the circumstances few of the specific provisions of the Treaties of 1919 can be regarded as permanent. They would in many cases, undoubtedly, be a source not of pacification but of fresh conflict, were it not for the happy fact that the first work of the Peace Conference was to establish an enduring League of Nations, and to create machinery for the treatment of grievances and the settlement of disputes. It is this provision for the pacific accomplishment of necessary territorial changes that most hopefully distinguishes the Treaties of 1919 from those of 1815.

Of the readjustments of boundaries effected during 1919 the following are the most important:

I. By the Treaty of Versailles with Germany (*June* 8, 1919).

1. *Absolute Cessions.*—(1) Alsace-Lorraine to France; (2) Moresnet to Belgium; (3) portions of Silesia, Posen, West Prussia, and East Prussia to Poland.

2. *Cessions subject to Plebiscite.*—(1) Portions of East Prussia, West Prussia, and Silesia, claimed by Poland; (2) Northern Schleswig, claimed by Denmark; (3) Malmédy and Eupen, claimed by Belgium.

3. *Provisional Cessions to League of Nations.*—(1) Danzig; (2) the Saar Basin, to be worked in the interests of France for fifteen years, when its destination is to be decided by plebiscite.

4. *Temporary Cessions to the Allies.*—(1) Memel and region round it, to go to either Poland or Lithuania; (2) German territories west of the Rhine, with bridgeheads, to be occupied for period five to fifteen years as guarantee for execution of the Treaty.

II. By the Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye with Austria (*September* 10, 1919).

1. The severance of Austria from Hungary is recognised, save that Austria is allowed to retain a few German districts on the frontier formerly under Hungarian rule.

2. A new independent State of Czecho-Slovakia is formed out of the territories of Bohemia, Moravia, and Austrian Silesia (with slight additions from Hungary and Germany).

3. Western Galicia is ceded to Poland, and Eastern Galicia to the Ruthenes of the Ukraine.

4. Bukovina is ceded to Roumania.

5. Bosnia, Herzegovina, Eastern Istria,[1] and Dalmatia are ceded to the new Croatian-Serbian State of Yugo-Slavia. The region of Klagenfurt, however, is subject to a plebiscite, and the frontier between Yugo-Slavia and Italy (involving the fate of Fiume) has to be fixed by the Powers.

6. The Trentino, with the Tyrol as far as the Brenner Pass—thus including a population of 250,000 German peasants—goes to Italy, as does Western Istria with Trieste.

7. Austria is not to join herself to Germany without the consent of the League of Nations.

Note.—Under this disruptive settlement Austria is reduced to the condition of a small and poor land-locked State, hardly bigger than the Serbia which in 1914 she attempted to destroy.

III. By the Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine with Bulgaria (*November* 27, 1919).

1. Yugo-Slavia acquires four small pieces of territory on the Bulgarian frontier.

2. The whole of the Aegean sea-board of Bulgaria is taken away and placed "at the disposal of the Allied Powers."

3. Some territory west and south of Adrianople—ceded to Bulgaria by Turkey in 1915—is also taken away and restored to Turkey.

The treaties with Hungary and Turkey were not concluded at the close of 1919. Hence the boundaries of Yugo-Slavia and Roumania on their Hungarian sides remained, and at the

[1] The fate of this territory remains undecided at the time of going to press.

date of writing still remain, in some uncertainty. The broad lines of the settlement, however, are fairly clear. Yugo-Slavia recovers on the north the Banat of Temesvar conquered by the Magyars in 1718, and on the south Croatia and Slavonia. Roumania is reunited to the Principality of Transylvania, which has been held by Hungary since 1699; the Dobruja also remains again under her control.

It will be seen from the above brief summary that in Central Europe three entirely new States have come into existence as the result of the war. They are named Czecho-Slovakia, Yugo-Slavia, and Poland. (1) Czecho-Slovakia consists of the regions already mentioned as ceded by Austria, together with a small fragment of German Silesia and a portion of Northern Hungary (including the important town of Pressburg). (2) Yugo-Slavia comprises the former kingdoms of Serbia and Montenegro, together with Bosnia, Herzegovina, Dalmatia, and Eastern Istria from Austria, and Croatia, Slavonia, and parts of the Backa and Banat regions from Hungary. (3) Poland, declared independent on November 5, 1916, as at present constituted consists of (*a*) the whole of Russian Poland; (*b*) part of Galicia from Austria; and (*c*) those portions of Posen, West Prussia, Silesia, and East Prussia already enumerated under the Treaty of Versailles. The eastern frontier of Poland as shown on the map is purely provisional. No terms have as yet been agreed upon between the Poles and the Bolshevik Russians.

Russia, in fact, is at present the one region in which no boundaries can be drawn, and concerning which few statements can be made. When the unity of the Tsardom was shattered in 1917 some twenty separate republics were proclaimed in different parts of the vast Russian Empire. Of these Poland (as already noted) and Finland seem definitely to have made good. Others, such as the Baltic States of Esthonia, Livonia, Courland, and Lithuania, appear likely in some form to survive. Others again, for example the republic of North Russia and the Don republic of South Russia, have been submerged by the Bolshevik flood. Concerning the rest, and in particular the important republic of Ukrainia, at the time of writing all is doubt. In the circumstances it has been found impossible to do more than indicate roughly the main political divisions along the fringe of Russia in Europe.

Postscript.—The treaty with Hungary was signed on June 4, 1920; that with Turkey on August 10, 1920. By the latter treaty Turkey in Europe is cut back to the Chatalja lines, Eastern Thrace going to Greece. The coast regions of the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora, and the Bosphorus are placed under the control of a "Commission of the Straits" appointed by the League of Nations.

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